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6 ITERATIVE HISTOGRAM MODIFICATION, 2,  
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#### ABSTRACT

Histogram peaks can be sharpened using an iterative process in which large bins grow at the expense of nearby smaller bins. The modified histogram will consist of a few spikes corresponding to the peaks of the original histogram. The image corresponding to the modified histogram is often almost undistinguishable from the original image. The small number of different gray levels in that image can be used to facilitate compressing or segmenting it.

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# 1. Introduction

This note describes a process for sharpening peaks on an image's histogram. It supplements preliminary work by Rosenfeld and Davis [1]. The process thins each peak on the original histogram into a spike. The new image, corresponding to the modified histogram, has only a few gray levels. These gray levels correspond to the spikes in the modified histogram. The process can also generate a spike from the "shoulder" of a peak. Such shoulders are created by small peaks close to bigger ones; the process provides a cheap method of discovering such hidden peaks. The resulting image is a mapping of the original image into very few gray levels corresponding to the spikes found. This mapping provides an initial segmentation of the image. Even though the modified image generally consists of very few gray levels, no deterioration in the image detail is seen. This should make possible efficient coding of the image without noticable deterioration in its quality.

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## 2. The Algorithm

The algorithm described below operates on a one-dimensional histogram, but has a natural generalization to any number of dimensions. Thus, it could be used to process three-dimensional color histograms, or histograms based on additional pixel properties besides gray level. (This generalization was suggested by E. Riseman in a personal communication.)

For each histogram bin  $B_i$ , the neighboring RANGE (an input parameter) bins  $B_{i+j}$  on each side ( $j = 1, 2, \dots, \text{RANGE}$ ) are examined. If  $\#B_i$  is greater than the average  $A$  of

$\#B_{i+1}, \dots, \#B_{i+\text{RANGE}}$  (and similarly on the other side of  $B_i$ ),

compute the ratio  $X = \frac{\#B_i - A}{\#B_i}$ , which specifies the fraction of

pixels whose gray levels will be shifted towards  $B_i$ . Then, the

following gray level changes are executed:  $\#B_{i+\text{RANGE}} \cdot X$  from

$B_{i+\text{RANGE}}$  to  $B_{i+\text{RANGE}-1}$ ;  $\#B_{i+\text{RANGE}-1} \cdot X$  from  $B_{i+\text{RANGE}-1}$  to

$B_{i+\text{RANGE}-2}; \dots; \#B_{i+1} \cdot X$  from  $B_{i+1}$  to  $B_i$ .

The entire process is then iterated.

In order to minimize the changes in gray levels, and to preserve their original order (i.e., to preserve "darker than" and "lighter than" relations), a "history" of pixel movement is kept. A matrix  $H$  is created in which element  $H(\alpha, \beta)$  indicates the number of pixels currently at gray level  $\alpha$  that had original gray level  $\beta$ . Initially,

$$H(i, j) = \begin{cases} 0 & , i \neq j \\ \# \text{ pixels with gray level } i & , i = j \end{cases}$$

The algorithm performs gray level changes on  $H$  only (not on the image). When transferring pixels from gray level  $\alpha$  to gray level  $\beta$ , the pixels transferred first are those whose origin is closest to  $\beta$ . Finally, the image is transformed by changing  $H(\alpha, \beta)$  pixels from gray level  $\beta$  to gray level  $\alpha$ .

### 3. Image Compression

An immediate application of the algorithm described previously is to provide a segmentation of the image into a few gray levels. Simple images such as tanks (see Figures 1, 6, 7) can be represented by 3-4 gray levels, so immediate compressions from 6 to 2 bits per pixel are obtained. Figures 2-5 show that even more complicated images can be represented by about eight distinct gray levels.

Efficient encoding schemes can be used to further improve compression. From the final histogram we can derive a Huffman coding [2] for the image. This coding gives about 1.4 bits per pixel for the tank images in Figures 6.7, and 2.1 bits per pixel for Figures 4-5. Run length coding can also be used, since the reduction in the number of gray levels favors longer runs.

#### 4. Examples

Figure 1 shows the steps in the creation of spikes from the original histogram. Displayed are the original image and its histogram, and the images produced after one, two and four iterations. Figures 2-7 consist each of an original image, and to its right the images obtained after four iterations, but with varying sizes of the neighborhood of each bin that was considered ( $RANGE = 2, 3, \text{ and } 4$ ).

From Figures 2-5 it can be seen that when a bin considers only a small neighborhood, high-frequency characteristics of the histogram are emphasized. Increasing the width of the neighborhood has a smoothing effect, and the high frequency effects disappear. In Figures 6-7, the target regions are successfully extracted.



## 5. Concluding Remarks

This note has presented further results on histogram peak sharpening and its uses in image compression and segmentation. The method used is generally similar to that of Davis [1], but is improved in that it preserves the order of the gray levels, while producing sharper and better centered peaks. It also makes no use of Davis' preprocessing scheme of discarding points having high edge values. The examples show that this method should be useful for a wide variety of types of images.



## References

1. A. Rosenfeld and L. S. Davis, Iterative histogram modification, University of Maryland Computer Science Center TR-519, April 1977.
2. D. Knuth, The Art of Computer Programming, vol. 3, Addison-Wesley, 1975.

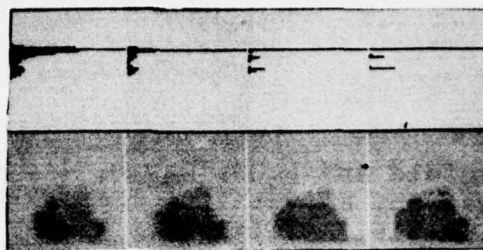
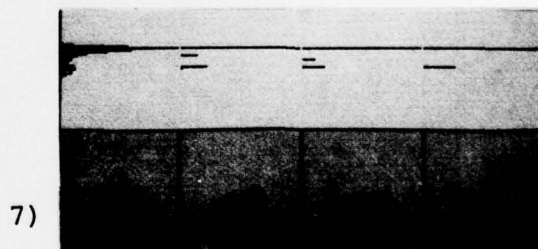
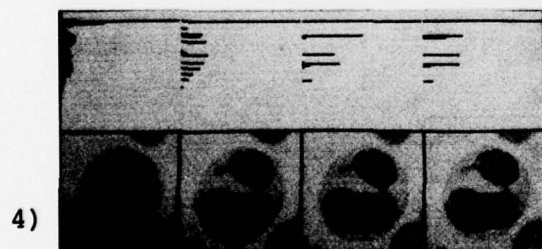
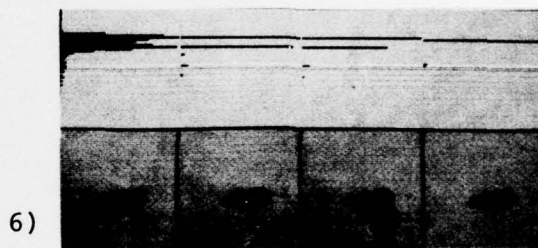
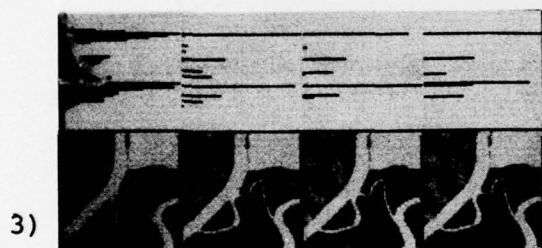
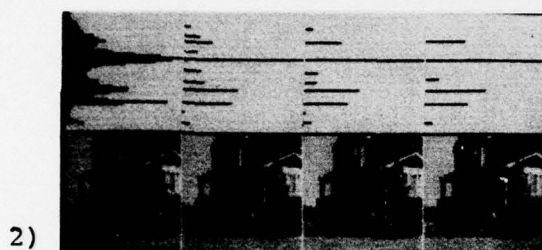


Figure 1. Iterations 0, 1, 2, 4 of the peak sharpening process.



Figures 2-7. Result of four iterations of the peak sharpening process using neighborhood sizes of 2, 3, and 4 (2, 4 and 5, in the case of Figure 6).

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